

THE METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH IN PHILOSOPHY

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T. P. Ramachandran

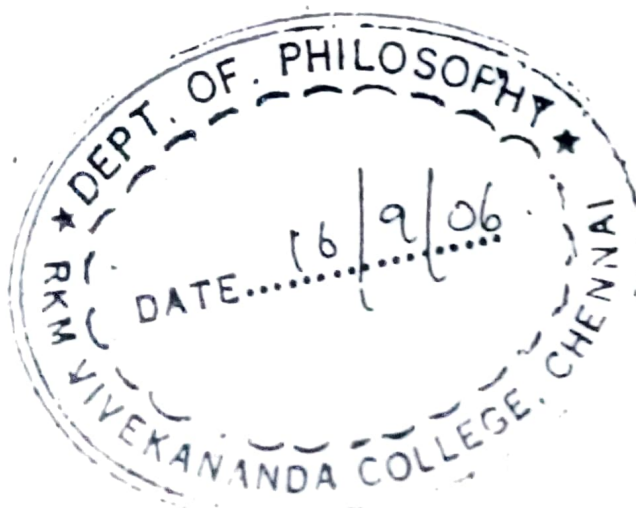


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METHODOLOGY
OF RESEARCH IN PHILOSOPHY

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FOREWORD

The Methodology of Research is nowadays one of the subjects in which candidates for the M. Phil. Degree are examined. Those who conduct research leading to the Doctorate Degree are also required to know the science of research method as the success of research depends in no small measure on the application of a proper method. Dr. Ramachandran has produced this book out of his experience in teaching Methodology and in guiding research in philosophy in this Institute. I have great pleasure in introducing this work to research scholars and teachers in philosophy.

MADRAS
2—3—1984

R. BALASUBRAMANIAN

PREFACE

The substance of this book first appeared as an article in the Institute's periodical, the *Indian Philosophical Annual*, Volume XIV (1980-81). The contents of the article have been revised and enlarged for preparing this book. The last two chapters have been added.

The book is the outcome of my classes in Research Methodology to M. Phil. students and of my experience as a guide to research scholars in this Institute. Though the book is specially concerned with research in philosophy, it also contains points of general interest to research scholars.

I am thankful to the authorities of the University of Madras for sanctioning the publication of this book under the auspices of this Institute. I thank Dr. R. Balasubramanian, the Director, for all his help. To Dr. N. Veezhinathan, Professor of Sanskrit, I am thankful for his help in regard to Chapter IX.

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T. P. RAMACHANDRAN

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EPISTEMOLOGY AND THE METHODOLOGY
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CHAPTER I

PRELIMINARIES

1. THE TERM 'RESEARCH'

In some English words the prefix 're' acts as a living, i.e. active, prefix and conveys the idea of repetition (e.g. in 'reaffirm' and 'rebirth') or the idea of return to previous state (e.g. in 'reappear', 'rediscover'). But in some other words the prefix 're' has become obscured or unrecognizable, so that the words carry special senses (e.g. in 'react', 'rebel', 'relic', 'recluse', 'rebate', 'refine', and 'reproach'). The hyphen is often employed when the writer wishes to stress the living nature of the prefix as in 'recession' in contrast to 'recession' or in 're-cover' in contrast to 'recover'.

The distinction made above may be drawn upon for understanding the meaning of the word 'research'. In older English the prefix 're' of this word was a living prefix and the term meant 'the repetition of a search', 'searching again'. But in current usage the prefix is obscured and the term has a different meaning, namely 'careful search', or 'intense investigation'. *The Oxford Universal Dictionary* (1974) defines the word as 'the act of searching (closely or carefully) for or after a specified thing or person'. The noun may also be used as a countable, i.e. with an article, to denote a particular case or cases of research as in 'a research/researches into modern values'. Thus it is the manner of searching rather than the repetition of an earlier search that characterizes research. It is a more penetrating search than the one we ordinarily undertake in any field

merely to gain general acquaintance with it. It is critical—marked by a questioning attitude.

The purpose of being critical is unravelling hidden truths which are ordinarily missed or glossed over in a general study of a subject. The aim of research is thus to advance over the knowledge already possessed in a subject. *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (1980) therefore gives the following definition: 'investigation undertaken in order to discover new facts, get additional information, etc.'

Now, 'an intensive investigation for the sake of additional information' has two implications. The aim of addition assumes that one actually knows in 'a general way about the field under investigation.' There can be no question of adding to knowledge if one is totally unfamiliar with the field in question. A knowledge of the basic elements of a field is a necessary preliminary to contribution in knowledge. Again, the characteristic of intensity in research implies that the area of research has necessarily to be limited. If the investigator is obliged to run his mind over a wide area, his treatment would naturally be diffuse and in no way different from his preliminary knowledge of it. The area of research will thus necessarily be narrower than the broad field in which the investigator is expected to have basic knowledge. It will belong to that field and will have to be carefully selected.

Summing up the four ideas that we have brought out above, we may define research thus: a critical investigation into a chosen area within a familiar field for the purpose of furthering the knowledge about the area selected.

We may also clarify that the contribution to knowledge may be either by discovering new truths as such or by revising and correcting existing knowledge of truths and thereby presenting the known truths in a new light.

2. THE METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH

The term 'methodology' comes from the word 'method'. So the concept of method in research has first to be explained. We may distinguish between two aspects of a research undertaking — its content and its method. The content is what we intend to present to a learned audience. It is the substance of a research work, its subject-matter. The method is how we set about dealing with the subject.

Between the two, the content is of primary, or intrinsic, importance in the sense that this is our contribution to knowledge. The importance of the method is secondary, or instrumental, in the sense that the method is good to the extent that it subserves the interests of the content. Any method cannot be arbitrarily imposed on the content. The method must take after and suit the nature of the content. It must be adequate to the content.

We find that the method that is followed in one discipline cannot apply to another. The method of a physical science, like chemistry, such as experiment in a laboratory, cannot be adopted for a social science, like economics, which has to depend on the observation of a large number and variety of facts, or statistics. In a subject like philosophy where we deal with fundamental problems, which occupy a very abstract level of inquiry, the method has necessarily to rely on a type of reflection which is far removed from laboratory and field work. If we think of divisions within a branch of knowledge, there again methods vary. A special feature of classical Indian philosophy which distinguishes it from modern Western philosophy is that it relies on scriptural texts as sources of knowledge. Without going into the merits of the case, we might note that this class of philosophy calls for exegetical interpretation and cannot depend entirely on logical analysis or speculation as in the other case. The same variation in methods applies to specific topics discussed by research investigators.

(Thus the criterion for the excellence of a method is its adequacy to meet the demands of the content.) To the extent it is adequate the method enhances the value of the research work, and to the extent it is not it can detract from that value. For this reason, a research worker has to pay attention not only to *what* he deals with but also to *how* he deals with it. Hence the study of research method as such becomes necessary for a research worker.

(The term 'methodology' means 'the systematic study of method', 'the science of method', or 'the theory of method'.) The methodology of research is the special study of the methods adopted in research. It may be possible to identify certain features which are common in the methods adopted in various disciplines, fields, and areas, while their distinctive characteristics adapt themselves to different disciplines, fields, and areas. And the purpose of a research methodology is to identify the general and constant features of research method on the one hand and on the other to ascertain how the particular features of method vary according to the nature of the disciplines, fields, and areas where it operates. The basis of this inquiry consists in the concrete cases of research already done. Such an investigation will enable us to know the strengths and weaknesses, the successes and failures exhibited in the implementation of methods by research workers. The importance of methodology, which in essence is profiting by the experience of previous researchers, is that it helps us to avoid the wastage involved in the trial and error procedure. Methodology of research is a growing science, taking in every helpful method newly discovered.

3. THE FINISHED PRODUCT OF RESEARCH

This is called by various names, such as 'thesis', 'dissertation', 'research report', 'special study', 'monograph'. These names, however, are not sure indications of the

length of the products. (In any case, these are much longer than a 'research paper', which would occupy anything less than about fifty pages.) For our convenience we may classify the research products other than a research paper into two types. The longer one, say about two hundred and fifty pages, may be called 'thesis' and the shorter one, say about a hundred pages, may be called 'dissertation'.

The term 'thesis' applies to the theme as well as to the work which critically treats of it. 'What is your thesis?' means 'What is your argument, your contention?' In 'what is the argument of your thesis?' the term 'thesis' refers to the work. By a 'monograph' is meant a treatise on a single theme. Though this term is conventionally applied to the shorter research product of about a hundred pages, in essence every research product is a monograph. The critical nature of a research work requires that it confine itself to a single theme. 'Research report' and 'special study' may represent a product occupying the size of what we have described as a thesis or of the one we have called a dissertation.

All these products are characterized by critical investigation, which qualifies them for the status of research work and contrasts them from purely expository accounts of known facts, like text books.



CHAPTER II

QUALIFICATIONS FOR RESEARCH IN PHILOSOPHY

Everyone cannot be a good researcher in a branch of knowledge just because he is interested in it. Mere interest is a qualification for acquiring knowledge. But to contribute to knowledge calls for appropriate disposition, or aptitude. The disposition for research consists of both general and special qualifications. By general qualifications we mean those that are expected in any researcher irrespective of his field. The special qualifications are those which are demanded by the nature of each field.

I. GENERAL QUALIFICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

1.1. *Proficiency in the Field of Research*

Since research is meant for advancement in knowledge in a familiar field, it presupposes a good grasp of the fundamentals of that field. One may be interested in a particular area of knowledge without ever having studied it. Such an interest may prompt him to make a serious study of it. But acquiring knowledge in a field for the first time is not the same as contributing to knowledge in it. It is only those who are already proficient in a field that can make fresh discoveries in any area of that field. Therefore a good knowledge of the fundamentals of the field is a pre-requisite for conducting research in any part of that field. The time meant for research is not to be spent on acquiring basic information in it just because one likes it.

1.2. *Heuristic Motivation*

(2) The researcher must be curious to discover hidden truths. Curiosity is of course present in a general way in all individuals in the sense of a desire to improve one's knowledge. But most people will be satisfied with learning from others who already happen to know. The more intense type of curiosity is the desire to discover for one's self something about which anyone is hardly aware. In most cases even this higher curiosity is short-lived, i.e. after a time the desire to find out something may fade out because of the demanding nature of the effort called for. In a genuine researcher the curiosity to discover is persistent. In spite of distractions, delays, and even disappointments, he will not rest without finding a solution to the problem, agitating his mind. This quality may be discerned in a good researcher even at the beginning, for one endowed with the motivation to discover will exhibit a flair for the right kind of topic for research and come out with one.

1.3. *Reflective Ability*

(4) To be able to fulfil his curiosity, the research worker must possess ability to think systematically. In a general way, all individuals are given to reflection, because even the affairs of life call for it. But it is usually casual and contingent on circumstances. This may be sufficient to meet the requirements of action. But to find a solution to an intellectual problem, reflection has to be systematic and unconditional. It must proceed from step to step in a coherent and cogent manner until a solution opens up.

2. SPECIAL QUALIFICATIONS FOR RESEARCH IN PHILOSOPHY

2.1. *Capacity for High Degrees of Generalization*

(5) The distinguishing mark of philosophy which contrasts it from other disciplines is that it goes to the fundamentals.

of the universe, knowledge, and life. It seeks the structure of being, the principles of knowing, and the purposes of living at their basis. Thus the organization of facts that it attempts goes beyond the level of organization which we can expect in any branch of knowledge and encompasses the whole range of human knowledge. Hence research in philosophy calls for a type of reflection that steadily keeps up the concept of the whole while scanning the parts, whether of reality, knowledge or values. Thus, although reflection is indispensable in all disciplines, philosophic reflection is to be synthetic and synoptic.

2.2. *Language of Source*

In philosophy the main sources of information are written materials. There is no place for experimentation and very little for field studies. Abstract concepts are found discussed in written records — handwritten (on paper, palm leaf or stone slabs), typed or printed, published or unpublished, and in various languages. The resort to written sources requires the researcher to know the language of the source, such as Sanskrit, Pali, Tamil, German or Tibetan. Expert knowledge of a language is a field by itself. The researcher in philosophy, if he happens to possess it, stands at a definite advantage. But at the minimum he should possess a fair working knowledge of the language, so that he could follow the trend of a text and grasp the subject-matter. If there is a specific difficulty in regard to a word or a phrase or even a section, the help of a language expert could be utilized.

2.3. *Language of Reporting*

This is of course a general qualification. A research scholar in any discipline is expected to possess proficiency in the language in which he is required by the establishment to report his findings. Without adequate power of expression in that language he may not succeed in communicating his discoveries to the reader. Still, we may describe

QUALIFICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

this requirement as a special qualification for the researcher in philosophy because in philosophy we depend more on language as a tool of communication than in any other field. Symbols, formulæ, visual aids, etc. would do part of the job in other fields. But in the rarefied atmosphere of abstract concepts as in philosophy we cannot succeed in communicating our ideas without a very carefully framed language. Graphic representations, though not ruled out, have only limited use in this case.

Command of language for the researcher does not mean his being a literary artist. The language of a thesis is not meant for delight but for clear understanding. Hence what the writer is expected to possess is the capacity to express himself in correct language. He should know the right words for the ideas, follow the rules of grammar and punctuation, and observe the logical sequence of sentences and paragraphs. Correct expression alone ensures clear comprehension. If the language happens to be pleasing also, so much is it better, because it will then mitigate the tedium of reading. In fact, the clear prose of a correct writer is itself felicitous. But mere felicity of language is no substitute for clarity.

CHAPTER III

KINDS OF TOPICS FOR RESEARCH IN PHILOSOPHY

1. THE BASIC TYPES OF TOPICS

A perusal of a large number of existing research products in philosophy, theses for instance, would reveal that topics for research in philosophy fall into two broad categories. The difference between them is not absolute but relative. They are not mutually exclusive types. They represent rather two trends which involve each other but which differ in regard to their focus and margin. One type has its focal attention on a thinker or text and proceeds to discuss the philosophical concepts specially occurring in that thinker or text. The other has for its focus a concept and examines the nature and significance of this concept taking into consideration the views offered by a variety of thinkers and texts. Here are two examples just to show the contrast : (1) 'Advaita in *Srīmad Bhāgavata*' (2) 'Consciousness: its character and import in Indian philosophy'.

1.1. Thinker- or Text-based Topics

The thinker or text chosen is usually one less known than others, so that there is plenty of room for contribution to knowledge. The facets of thought found in a less known thinker or text when brought to light make a distinct contribution to knowledge. But this does not mean that a thinker or text that is well known should as a rule be excluded. For even of a well-known thinker or text there may be aspects that are not well known. "If the investigator is confident that there is some facet in such a source which

has not received sufficient attention, nothing prevents him from dealing with such a subject.

1.2. Concept-based Topics

The topic may turn round a single important concept or even a system of concepts representing a school of philosophy. The concept or concepts may be the less known ones, to provide scope for new knowledge. Even the more prominent concepts may be chosen if the researcher feels that there are implications in them which are not so well known.

1.3. Comparative Topics

- (i) The two categories of topics distinguished above have been cited so far only with an individual point of reference. That is to say, the first has been explained with reference to an individual thinker or text, and the second with reference to an individual concept or an individual system of concepts. It may be observed at this stage that both these categories of topics admit of being adopted on a comparative basis. The comparison, again, may be from within the same tradition or from two different traditions. Thus a
- (ii) thinker in one tradition may be compared with another connected with him or similar to him either in the same tradition or in a different tradition. The two thinkers, again, may be compared either with reference to all that they stand for or with reference to some specific point of meeting. The same procedures apply to the comparison of two texts. Coming to the concept-based type of topic, a concept occurring in one school may be compared with the same or a parallel concept occurring in another school either of the same tradition or of another tradition. Likewise, a whole system of concepts, i.e. a school as such, of one tradition, may be compared with a parallel system belonging either to the same or to a different tradition.

It is true that even individually oriented types, which we have explained previously, may involve comparison.

For example, when dealing with a thinker or text, one may have to consider that thinker or text in relation to some other thinker or text. Likewise, when dealing with concepts, one may have to examine how one conception of a concept stands to other conceptions of it or how one system of concepts stands to other systems. But such comparisons are incidental to the topic. What we have in mind when we speak of comparative projects as such are those where comparisons are deliberate and are intended to constitute the topic.

Comparatively oriented research projects must satisfy the following principles.

(1) The research worker must have fair knowledge of both the areas compared. Otherwise the treatment of the subject is bound to be one-sided, and comparison would exist only in name.

(2) Comparison should not be forced and arbitrary. Comparison would be natural only if it is instituted between two areas which have common ground.

(3) Comparison should be intellectually purposeful, the purpose of comparison being to bring out less known features in both the phenomena compared, each serving as a tool and occasion to draw out the other. This requirement implies that comparison should not be made for inflating the size of the product or for extra-academic purposes such as denigrating one of the persons or positions compared.

(4) Comparison will add to knowledge only if it is analytical. That is to say, instead of comparing two things in general terms, they should be compared aspect by aspect.

2. META-PHILOSOPHICAL TOPICS

Philosophy discusses reality, knowledge, and values. The discussion about philosophy itself is meta-philosophy.

It is well known that philosophers differ among themselves on almost every important question though there are agreements also. Why do they differ? And in so far as they differ, which philosophy is more sound than others in regard to each question? Such are the problems to which meta-philosophy addresses itself. In order to meet these issues, meta-philosophy has to dig into the very foundations of philosophy. Thus meta-philosophy examines the origin, presuppositions, goals, methods, results, and limits of philosophy by comparing the achievements of different philosophers. This being the nature of meta-philosophy, research in this area requires sufficient experience in the pursuit of philosophy as such.

3. INTER-DISCIPLINARY TOPICS

All the types of projects discussed so far are within the discipline of philosophy. Apart from these intra-disciplinary projects, we have to provide for a new demand: inter-disciplinary projects. Inter-disciplinary investigation is a feature of modern knowledge. The special scientists were responsible for this type of investigation. (Apart from investigation in the old beaten tracks of distinct branches of science, there is an increasing tendency to work between the tracks, as it were, i.e. between branches which have common areas of interest. This interaction among specific sciences has led to the development of new branches, e.g. bio-chemistry, bio-physics, ecology, meteorology, and demography. Following the sciences, the liberal arts, or the humanities, also have begun to provide for this kind of research. How far can philosophy accommodate it? We have to make a cautious approach to this question in view of certain limitations in this regard in the case of philosophy.)

At first we may consider whether there is scope for team work in philosophy in case an inter-disciplinary project is thought of. In the exact sciences, where the subject-matter is factual, the collaboration of scientists

belonging to various branches is quite possible. Space research, for instance, is the work of a large body of various scientists—physicists, chemists, biologists, mathematicians, astronomers, medical scientists, and psychologists. But considering the nature of our discipline, there is reason to doubt whether team work is possible in an inter-disciplinary project involving philosophy. Since philosophy deals with the fundamentals of the universe, of knowledge, and of life, the subject-matter is of a highly conceptual kind requiring reflection of an abstract nature far removed from the level of bare facts. Reflection is an individual process, but, while in the sciences the close contact of reflection with factual demonstration leaves much room for collaborative endeavour, in philosophy the abstract nature of the reflective process leaves little scope for joint ventures. Joint ventures among philosophers are usually for the compilation of bibliographies, source books, and so on, i.e. for the construction of tools for research. Creative philosophic endeavour, or philosophizing, is essentially an individual effort.

On this consideration, when we contemplate an inter-disciplinary project involving philosophy, the project may have to be undertaken by an individual rather than by a team. The implication of this recognition is that this individual, who would speculate on the link between philosophy and another discipline, would have to be equipped in both the fields. This does not mean that he should possess a formal degree in both, but that he should possess substantial basic knowledge in both the fields. Research presupposes basic knowledge, and since two fields are involved here, the research worker is supposed to be proficient in both.

The second difficulty is that of relating philosophy with another discipline on a reciprocal basis. Philosophy is not one among the many branches of knowledge. It is love of wisdom as such — *jijñāṣā*, as it is called in Sanskrit. Hence it encompasses the whole range of knowledge — not of course by adding up the different branches of know-

ledge but by organizing them at a deeper level in terms of fundamental principles. In this special sense, philosophy itself is inter-disciplinary in character. For this reason, the inter-disciplinary contacts of philosophy with other disciplines are bound to be different from the conventional reciprocal type. What, then, is the special nature of the contact?

Apart from the hard core of philosophy represented by metaphysics, epistemology, and philosophy of values, there is an ever-growing periphery of philosophy where we make specific philosophies of a variety of disciplines. Let us elucidate the nature of this periphery. Any branch of knowledge has the tendency to go beyond its original confines and develop into a philosophy of itself when its investigations are stretched to questions of wider scope and deeper import than originally contemplated. We have thus come to know of a philosophy of science, a philosophy of fine art, a philosophy of history, a philosophy of education, and so on. The point of departure from the original branch into its philosophy can be identified in terms of the change in the nature of the problems dealt with.

Thus, while the special sciences, natural and social, are concerned with various aspects of the universe, the philosophy of science examines science itself — how it works, what its premises are, its methods, its concepts, its language, and its conclusions. History centres round the actual developments in human society at definite periods; when we begin to ask the significance of these developments, whether there is an inner meaning in historical movement, we make a philosophy of history. While art criticism is concerned with the merits of individual works of art, a philosophy of art begins when we search for the nature and significance of artistic beauty as such. So long as we are engaged in discussing the contents and methods of education at various levels, we are in the realm of the science of education, or pedagogics. But when we begin

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of deeper principles of explanation for its subject-matter. Thus when we speak of inter-disciplinary work in connection with philosophy, we do not mean a relation of contact and collaboration between philosophy and another discipline. What we do and can mean is a relation established by the growth and merger of the other discipline into the realm of philosophy. The recognition of such a relation would imply that the investigator must possess basic knowledge in the core of philosophy, consisting of metaphysics, epistemology, and theory of values, in addition to the special branch of knowledge which is sought to be developed into a philosophy.

CHAPTER IV

PRINCIPLES AND STEPS IN CHOOSING A TOPIC FOR RESEARCH IN PHILOSOPHY

1. IMPORTANCE OF CAREFUL CHOICE OF TOPIC

Choosing the right topic for research is itself a part of research. The right topic is one which suits (1) the taste and training of the student, (2) the purpose of research, and (3) the product intended. Random and haphazard decision on a topic may lead to unforeseen difficulties. Careful and systematic selection of a topic will contribute to success. The time spent on choosing a topic should not be regarded as wasted.

The prospective research worker may not be able to formulate his topic in precise academic terms — in this he will, in most cases, require the help of a guide. But he must at least be able to identify and express a suitable area and problem — [suitable to himself, suitable for research, and suitable for the product.] In fact, to come out with a suggestion of this kind is itself a test of the student's equipment for research. After all, research follows a good deal of basic training in the branch of knowledge, and this basic training wisely exploited should be able to throw up openings for research. Research is largely a matter of personal initiative. A candidate who is entirely dependent on the guide for a topic in the first instance does not hold promise of research.

2. GUIDING PRINCIPLES IN CHOOSING A TOPIC

2.1. *Interest and Basic Information in a Field*

These represent the suitability of the topic to the investigator. Research is exacting work. Delays and temporary

disappointments in arriving at results are quite probable in any case of research. But if the researcher is really interested in the topic, his interest will sustain him in his efforts and carry him through difficulties. Interest does vary. And it is worth spending some time in self-analysis to locate the area and problem of one's maximum interest.

Besides interest, possession of basic information relating to the field to which the topic belongs is important. We have already mentioned this as a qualification for research. Hence the prospective research worker should assess his equipment in the fields familiar to him and identify the one in which he has better acquisition than in others. Often the field of greater interest would also be the one of better grasp. Even if one is not so interested in a well-mastered field as in another though less known field, proficiency should be the overriding consideration for choice of research subject.

2.2. Scope of the Topic for Original Contribution

The aim of research is to contribute to knowledge. The topic chosen must suit this purpose. A restatement of existing knowledge for the understanding of beginners is not research. The proposed topic must be such as will yield new information, either by addition to or by revision of old knowledge. To make sure that the topic possesses novelty, the candidate has to check it up for the following two features.

(1) The topic calls for discussion by presenting unresolved difficulties. It presents problems of 'what', 'how' or 'why' and demands discussion. A frequent sign of discussibility is objection, which is either actual or possible, and either from another person or from oneself. An objection calls for answer — it cannot be brushed aside by any intellectual. To meet an objection is to discuss. If the discussion is within oneself, it is reflection.

(2) The topic has not already been worked upon by any other person, at least on the same lines on which the

candidate proposes to work upon it. This means that the researcher should examine to the extent possible previous contributions by others in the area to which his subject belongs, so as to minimise the chances of repetition and to feel sufficiently confident that his choice is fresh and will enable him to make original contribution to knowledge.

Before we proceed to the next guiding principle, two ideas require to be clarified in regard to the present one. The first is the investigator's relation to previous contributors in the field from the standpoint of originality. The second is the nature of originality in philosophy.

2.2.1. The Investigator's Relation to Previous Contributors

The insistence on original contribution does not imply that the researcher has nothing to do with previous contributors in the area, whether they be predecessors or contemporaries. There is no question of new knowledge without reference to existing knowledge. The findings of those who have already worked in the same broad field is necessarily the starting point for one's own research. And they may serve as a starting point not only in a positive way but sometimes even in a negative way. To the extent that the existing knowledge in a field is acceptable research adds to it. To the extent it is not acceptable research offers either substitutions or revisions. Thus even if an old contribution is not acceptable, research is indebted to it because it serves as a challenge for a change. The history of human knowledge in all branches bears ample evidence of how each successive thinker has taken off from the point at which some previous thinker has left the state of knowledge, either by adding to it or by replacing or revising it.

It is of interest to note incidentally that apart from recognizing the fact that a fresh thinker offers his views against the background of previous thinkers, the Indian tradition in philosophy deliberately employs it as a method of argument. The writer first states the *prima facie* view (*pūrva-pakṣa*). This may be the view of an actual historical

source or even of an assumed one. It is a view which is not acceptable to the writer himself, sometimes as a whole and sometimes in an aspect. Care is taken to present this view in an objective and fair manner. The account is so matter-of-fact that it does not give any inkling of the writer's disagreement with it. It is only after letting the reader see for himself what the preliminary position in it and offer the final position (*siddhanta*) to which he himself subscribes. The idea underlying the method is that the reader cannot be persuaded to accept the new knowledge without having been enabled to see the weakness of the old one.

2.2.2. *The Nature of Originality in Philosophy*

In general, original contribution to knowledge may consist either in the discovery of a new fact or in the discovery of a new relationship between facts. This distinction, however, is only relative. Actually, facts and theories involve each other. The distinction made between the two kinds of originality is therefore only a question of prominence. In the sciences there is scope for both these kinds of original contribution. The discovery of a new species of plant or animal, a new substance or a new heavenly body is of the first type. When a new fact has been discovered, the scientist is obliged also to explain its relation to already known facts. This may lead to a revision or enlargement of an existing theory of relationship, which to that extent is the discovery of a new relationship. For example, when a new planet has been discovered, it may call for an adjustment of the existing astronomical theory of planetary movement or even of the origin of the cosmos.

In philosophy the scope for original contributions lies mostly in the realm of relation between facts. We start with the facts we are already in possession of in common life. And new facts are supplied to us by scientists, artists, and mystics. It is in how we relate all these facts,

interpret them, and explain them that we as philosophers mostly contribute to knowledge. Again, the philosophic interpretation of facts is different from the scientific interpretation in the sense that while the scientist seeks connections within specific areas of facts, the philosopher has to search for relations among increasingly larger bodies of facts until the explanation becomes universal. In view of this special nature of originality in the realm of philosophy, a word of caution seems to be necessary. In so far as we seek originality in increasingly higher orders of generalization, there is the risk of our losing touch with facts and indulging in speculation of a barren unverifiable nature. To avoid this pitfall, the researcher in philosophy has constantly to check whether an interpretation is germane and natural to facts.

2.3. Appropriateness of the Topic for the Product Intended

In a formal time-bound research undertaking the research worker is bound to keep in view the kind of research product he intends to produce. The area selected may be suitable for research. But the scope of the topic in it has to be determined in the light of the product aimed at. A topic covering a wider circle of facts and consuming more time may be offered for the preparation of a thesis of two hundred and fifty pages. For a shorter product of a hundred pages, a dissertation, to be produced in a shorter period, a topic of less scope is called for. By the same principle the scope narrows down further for a research paper. Where too many points are sought to be pressed into a limited product the treatment is bound to become general and diffuse, defeating the very purpose of research. The product should reflect intensive investigation revealing new truths.

3. STEPS IN CHOOSING A TOPIC

3.1. Identifying an Area

Critical investigation calls for a manageably limited area. Therefore the first step in the matter of choosing is

for the researcher to divide his discipline into limited areas from among which he could choose one which is dear to him and at the same time fertile for discoveries. Philosophy is a vast domain and it could be divided according to different principles. The principles of division cross one another's path. More than one principle may therefore have to be applied, so that their intersection would ultimately throw up a suitable area. The following are the common principles for dividing philosophy and determining one's area.

(1) *Tradition.* There are the European, the Indian, the Far-Eastern, the American, and such other traditions.

(2) *Period.* It is usual to speak of the ancient, the medieval, and the modern periods in the history of philosophy.

(3) *Branch.* In terms of the nature of the problems dealt with there are the three main branches of philosophy, namely metaphysics, epistemology, and philosophy of values. There are, again, their sub-divisions, such as ontology, cosmology, psychology, logic, ethics, and aesthetics.

(4) *Standpoint.* Philosophers adopt different points of view in their approach to problems. In the Western tradition generally there are broad trends, such as idealism and realism in both epistemology and metaphysics, empiricism and rationalism in epistemology, and monism, pluralism, and naturalism in metaphysics. There are also specific historical schools in general Western philosophy, such as Platonism, Neo-Platonism, Thomism, Existentialism, and Pragmatism. In the Indian tradition there are the classical schools, namely Cārvāka, Jainism, Buddhism, Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika, Sāṅkhya-Yoga, Mīmāṃsā, and Vedānta with its own sub-varieties.

3.2. *Formulating a Topic*

Having identified an area which meets his interest and the object of research, the investigator has to reduce the

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area to terms of a definite topic. In doing this, he has to see that the scope of the topic is adjusted to the requirements of the kind of product he intends to produce. Very often the same topic may admit of being extended or curtailed in scope by a suitable formulation of its wording. For example, 'The concept of time in Indian philosophy' admits of a larger research product than 'The concept of time in (say) Sāṅkhya'. If the topic will not admit of such variation, an alternative topic of suitable scope will have to be thought of in the same area.

4. THE UTILITY OF A PRELIMINARY SYNOPSIS

It is advisable for the prospective research worker to prepare an abstract of the topic on which he proposes to work. The synopsis will have the following tasks.

(1) It will offer a provisional title to the topic and indicate the broad area to which the topic belongs.

(2) It will put forward a provisional contention within the topic as the object of the inquiry. That is to say, it will indicate the nature of the original contribution the inquiry expects to make to knowledge.

(3) It will set forth in outline the contents of the topic showing its main aspects. (The title given should reflect these contents.)

(4) It will identify the main sources of information on the topic.

(5) It will indicate the procedure contemplated for the implementation of the inquiry.

The advantages of this synopsis are two. On the one hand it will give confidence to the investigator in the choice of his subject. On the other, it will help him to initiate action on the subject. Articulating the aim of the inquiry will enable the researcher to test out for him-

CHOOSING A TOPIC

self whether the topic is fit for research. Writing the outline will show him the scope of the topic and its suitability to the product intended. Again, identifying the main sources and proposing a procedure will enable him to begin collecting the data.

It must be remembered that the synopsis prepared thus in advance of the task is bound to be provisional and will call for revision in the course of actual experience. The outline together with the title may have to be revised or the contention may have to be modified or the procedure suitably changed. Nevertheless the synopsis is useful as a guide to the work. It is a working synopsis and has to be distinguished from other summaries prepared at later stages in the work to which we shall refer in the appropriate places.

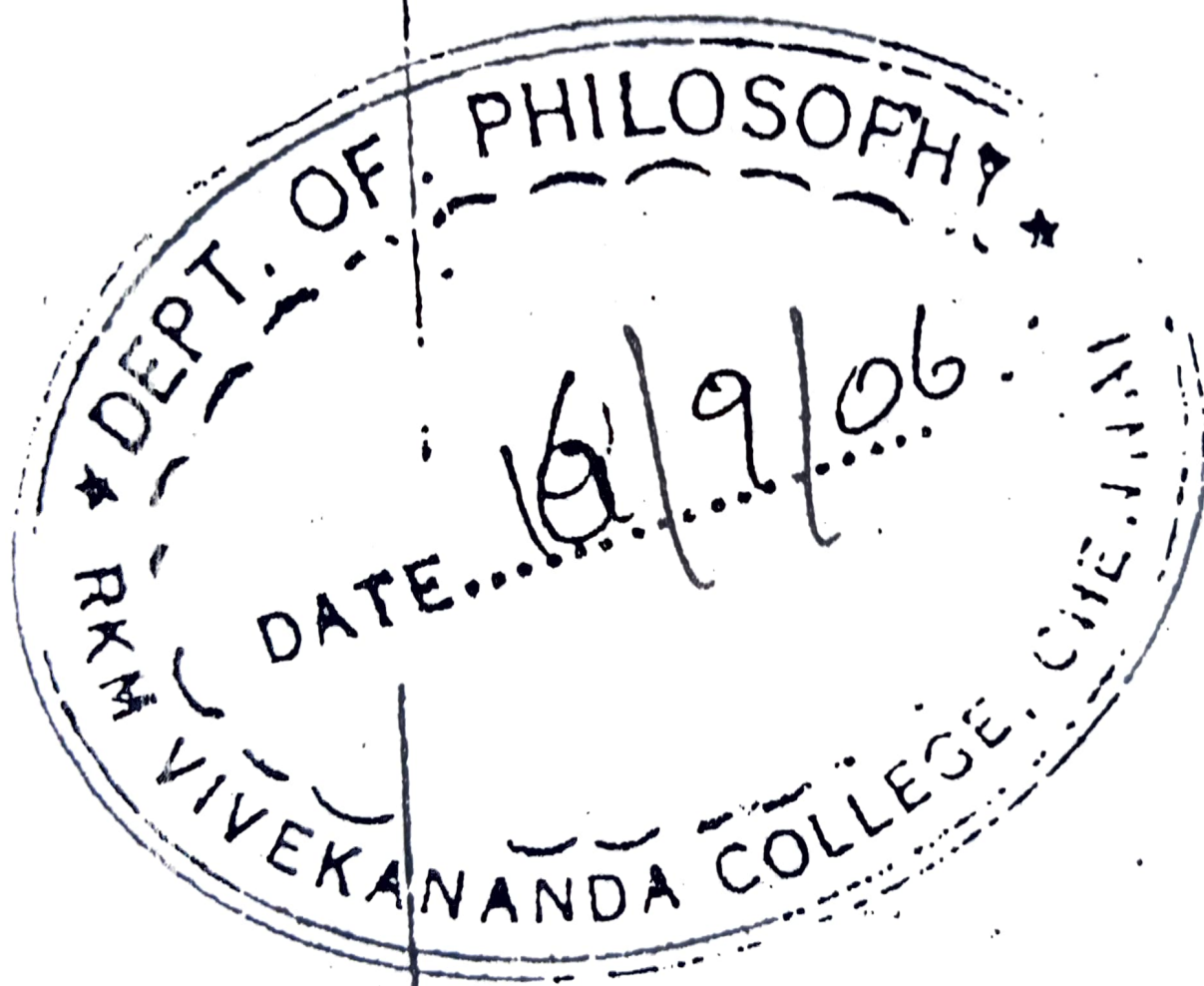
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and for its substantial, or material, preparation. What
called the 'mechanics' of thesis-writing relate to the
ventions to be followed in constructing this external
ment, the form, of the thesis. When the final draft has
been touched up to fulfil the requirements of formal pre-
sentation, the thesis is ready for judgement.

hypothesis gives a framework to know what kinds of data should be ascertained — the data will be such as to enable the researcher to test out the hypothesis. (3) The facts collected may either justify the hypothesis or call it into question. When they go against the hypothesis, the researcher has to replace the hypothesis by a better one or revise it in such a manner as to accommodate the new facts. And the collection of fresh facts is guided by this revised hypothesis. We have so far seen the implicit role of organization in the work of collection. Collection involves a degree of presentation also. The facts collected have to be immediately recorded under suitable classes along with information on their sources.

④ If we consider the second stage of organization, we shall see that this involves presentation as an aid. After the data have been collected, we concentrate on thinking out a meaningful relationship in which to present them. As we have already noted, even while collecting the data, the researcher would have conceived of an organization in a general way. But once the collection is substantially over, the organization of material will acquire a specific and particular form. To articulate the organization, the research worker has to try it out in writing. Writing is an excellent aid to thinking, for, when we write, we, so to say, 'see' our thoughts for ourselves. The organization requires its presentation, its expression, in writing. Such an implication does not mean that the presentation as it happens now is final. The presentation at this stage calls for repeated revision in terms of every review we make of it. So it only means that at the stage of organization we draft the thesis and revise the draft as many times and in as many places as we find necessary.

⑤ When the facts collected have been well laid out through drafting, there follows the final stage of presentation, which is presentation proper. This represents the formal preparation of the thesis if the first two stages



CHAPTER VI COLLECTION

1. THE SOURCES OF MATERIAL

1 Research in the physical sciences calls for a wide range of experiments. In the life sciences wide observation supplements experiments. In the social sciences the investigator depends mainly on field work, or observation. Some of the humanities like history also involve field work. In all these realms the use of written sources is present in varying degrees. In the realm of philosophy the research worker has to depend largely on written sources. Written sources, or documents, i.e. sources of information through the medium of language, include manuscripts (handwritten matter) on paper, palm-leaf, etc., typewritten records, printed books and articles, stray notes, speech recorded in discs or tapes, inscriptions on stone slabs or metal plates, and so on.

2 All kinds of documents may be classified under two heads, primary and secondary. These terms require to be explained. With reference to the works themselves, 'primary' and 'secondary' mean the following. The work in which an idea first occurs is primary, or original. The work in which the primary source is subsequently interpreted, commented on, criticized, summarised or translated is secondary. But with reference to the research worker, the terms, 'primary' and 'secondary' become relative to the topic of investigation. One and the same source may be primary for one investigator and secondary for another. Suppose an idea first occurs in work A and is interpreted in work B. To an investigator who proposes to

deal with the nascent idea work A is a primary source and work B a secondary one. But to another scholar who chooses to discuss, not the idea as such, but the manner in which it has been interpreted-work B becomes a primary source. (To him work A would be, not just a source of research, but a part of the basic knowledge which qualifies him for research.) By the same token another work, say C, which has examined the interpretation found in B, would be a secondary source to this latter scholar.

Hence in the context of research interpretations, commentaries, criticisms, summaries, translations, and so on are not to be described as secondary just because they interpret, criticize, and so on, other works. These would be primary to a research worker if his topic related to themselves and secondary if it related to other works behind them. Sometimes a work which is based on another work may itself contain original contributions in the form of a comment or criticism. It then assumes an importance of its own through the years and becomes a good field for research. This feature is frequently observed in the history of Indian philosophy, where schools have developed through a series of commentaries and commentaries upon commentaries or through a similar chain of critical works.

Having explained the terms, we may turn to the use of the two kinds of sources. A researcher may make use of his secondary sources especially in the early stages of his work. They are useful aids both in locating and in understanding the primary sources. But ultimately he must depend on the primary sources so as to know his subject-matter just as it is. There is no guarantee that a secondary source, however good, is faithful to the original in every respect. A work that is made merely out of secondary sources, just for some extraneous reason, e.g. that proficiency in the language of the original is lacking or that the original could not be availed of, can never lay claim to the title of research.

2. THE NEED FOR A WORKING BIBLIOGRAPHY

④ A bibliography is a list of written sources on a subject. A bibliography has to be appended to the finished research product so as to convince the reader that the thesis is based on definite evidence. But apart from this bibliography proper, or final bibliography, it is good to prepare one even at the commencement of research. The purpose of this preliminary, or working, bibliography is to enable one to know what sources are to be consulted. Reference material is usually mentioned under appropriate heads in encyclopaedias, dictionaries of special subjects, anthologies, and source books. Experts in the field may also suggest suitable sources. The investigator himself may come across information on sources in the course of his preliminary studies. Articles in learned journals, secondary sources, etc. carry references. Whatever source the research worker feels may be useful may be taken note of in sufficient detail, such as author or editor or translator, full title, details of publication, custody of copy available, call number, etc. Every item listed initially may not actually be found useful for one's purpose. Hence the list is tentative and will require frequent deletion and addition. Incidentally, if the working bibliography is preserved, it could serve as the basis for preparing the final bibliography.

3. HYPOTHESIS — THE GUIDING PRINCIPLE OF COLLECTION

③ Even in common life fact-finding is a selective process. Though innumerable objects and events come into our view, we pay attention only to certain facts in the light of our dominant concerns. Research is even more selective about facts. What is it that guides the selection of facts in research?

④ Problem-solving is the essence of research. The investigator has a central question in mind for which he seeks a satisfactory solution. Although the final solution

to his problem emerges only at the end of his investigation, he is not without any solution till then. To think of a problem is to think of a possible answer. To entertain a solution even before the investigation is begun or completed does not amount to prejudging the issue. It would amount to prejudgement only if the solution is taken for granted. But a true researcher will regard his solution as purely tentative until the very end of his work. (Even then it is in principle tentative, because there is always the possibility of someone being able to call it into question.) A provisional solution to a problem is called a hypothesis. The prefix 'hypo' indicates that it is 'less certain than' a thesis, or established contention.

b) In research it is the hypothesis that guides the selection of facts. Facts which have some bearing or other on the hypothesis are taken note of. The relevant facts need not all be in accord with the hypothesis. There may be many among them that go to support and strengthen the hypothesis. But we may also light upon some which are contrary to it. A relevant fact that does not square with the hypothesis reveals that the solution to the problem is defective either partially or wholly. In such a contingency the hypothesis has either to be revised or to be replaced by a better one to provide for the difficult fact. The revised or new hypothesis guides the further collection of facts, which in turn put it to test. In this manner the gradual perfection of hypothesis leads to the careful build-up of material to go into the substance of the research product.

4. CLASSIFICATION OF DATA

② The collection of facts in the light of and with a view to testing the hypothesis cannot afford to be haphazard. A research problem is bound to have many aspects. Hence the researcher has to ask himself at each stage whether the solution tentatively offered by him will do justice to all the aspects of the problem. In other words, he has to test the

hypothesis with facts relating to every aspect of the problem. To provide for such composite verification, the facts even as they are collected have to be classified. They have to be grouped according to their inner affinities, each class of facts representing a distinct aspect of the problem and put under a suitable head.

5. RECORDING THE COLLECTED MATERIAL

② The facts, even as they are collected and classified, have to be recorded for further treatment. The records, or notes, may be in different sets, each set for a class of data with an appropriate heading.

The recording may be done on cards or sheets of paper according to the nature of the subject and the convenience of the investigator. Cards are suitable where the classes under which the facts are proposed to be arranged are many. Sheets of paper of uniform size to be put on different files may be used where the classes are not many. Some useful hints may be given on notes-making, or recording material.

(1) It is good to enter only one idea on one card or sheet. It is also desirable to enter the idea on one side only of the card or the sheet. If the idea is not contained in one side of sheet or card, it may be continued on the next card or sheet indicating the continuation. Such a procedure will facilitate transfer of data from one class to another or even from one place to another within the same class whenever the researcher feels that a better arrangement is possible. It will also make easy revisions in expression when the notes are later rendered into draft. Only places where there are too many corrections will need to be rewritten. The notes at other places could as such be taken into the draft. In this way much writing time could be saved. Considering such transfers and corrections, bound books for recording of data are a disadvantage.

Subject to transfers, the title given to each class may be entered in abbreviation on the top of the card or the sheet so as to avoid mix-up.

(2)- The research worker will do well to record not only the information collected from a source but also the information about the source. One of the essential items of a research product is citing the sources of information, which will go to show that the contention of the work is not arbitrary and is thus different from popular opinion. The only exceptions to this practice are when (i) the investigator's own views are stated and (ii) accepted general truths; e.g. the well-known laws of nature, are mentioned. Even while recording the data collected, it is necessary to set down the exact sources from which they have been gathered. Retracing the sources at the time of drafting the work is needless additional labour which could be saved with a little fore-thought.

CHAPTER VII

ORGANIZATION

1. TRANSITION FROM COLLECTION TO ORGANIZATION

When the investigator is fairly satisfied that sufficient material has accumulated to make the body of the thesis, his emphasis must shift from the facts as such to their interconnection. Additional facts could be sought and fitted into the structure if the organization demands. As we have seen earlier, even in the stage of collecting the material there is a measure of organization. The facts are not collected somehow but with a view to their connection with the aim of the investigation. The hypothesis which the investigator entertains as a tentative and open solution to his problem is the constant principle that binds the facts which he gathers. The investigator has also a perspective of the main aspects of his problem and the stages through which to work out the problem. And such a perspective serves as the principle for classifying and arranging the data. Thus even in the stage of collection there is a sense of organization. But it operates in the background of consciousness and to the extent of serving as a guide to systematic collection, the predominant concern being the facts themselves. When the facts are sufficiently acquired, it is time to pay predominant attention to their interrelationship. It is in this sense of shifting the emphasis from the facts to their relationship that we speak of a transition to organization.

2. THE LOGICAL NATURE OF THE ORGANIZATION

Now, what is the nature of the organization that we expect in a research work? There is no doubt that the

whole set of data will be held together by one theme as in a work of literary art. But this general underlying unity in terms of the topic is not adequate for a research work. The appeal of a research work is to reason, intellect, and not to imagination and feeling as in the case of literary art.

It is useful here to refer to the distinction that Sanskrit writers make between a kāvya and a sūtra. Though both employ language as a medium, the criteria by which they are judged are different. Kāvya, or sāhitya, is literary art, such as poetry, essay or drama. It is valued for rasa, the aesthetic delight which it yields. By sūtra is meant a scientific, or systematic, treatise. Its value lies in jñāna, the information it gives. A research work is of the class of sūtra. Hence the intellectual standard alone should count in organizing the material for a thesis. Over and above the general unity in terms of the subject, a research work must aim at a rational relationship among its parts.

Now, a work of an intellectual nature may be either expository or critical. An expository work, e.g. a text-book or a manual for beginners or general readers, secures intellectual contact with the reader by plain description and explanation of ideas. It is concerned mostly with statements of fact and purports to inform the reader of what he did not know previously. There are other works which are critical, or logical, in nature. They indulge in discussions, offering arguments for and against positions. They are addressed to advanced readers who are in possession of basic knowledge about the subject discussed and are intended to convince them about the truth of something with which they are already acquainted in a general way. A research work belongs to this latter category of intellectual work. Hence the type of relationship it must aim at among its parts is a logical relationship such that it is able to convince the reader about its contention. The different classes of data and even the individual data within each class must follow one another in a sequence representing an argument.

We have to remember that a research work is addressed to a knowledgeable person, who, though not particularly conversant with the discovery of the investigator, is a specialist in the field to which the investigator belongs. Its aim, therefore, is not to supply the special knowledge which the reader lacks but to demonstrate that the researcher has found new truth in that knowledge. The essence of the work is therefore criticism — judgement involving defence of a contention and refutation of rival ones. The work must be able to make out a case for itself before the learned reader.

The chief indication of the logic of the thesis is the coordination between the introduction and the conclusion. Where there is logical necessity, the conclusion will naturally and spontaneously accord with the introduction. It will strike the same note as the introduction. Both the introduction and the conclusion will make the same claim. The only difference will be that the one is preliminary and the other final in the claim, as in the structure of a Nyāya syllogism. The writer makes a proposition in the introduction, demonstrates it through the chapters, and, on the strength of the argument running through the chapters, reiterates the proposition in the conclusion. Thus the organization in a thesis is the achievement of logical sequence in the material such that the conclusion inevitably follows from the material.

The close relation of the argument to the evidence should always be borne in mind by the investigator. The argument should never be allowed to become arbitrary and baseless. It should follow from the facts gathered and should in turn explain the facts. In other words, it should judiciously combine inductive and deductive procedures within the framework of material. We may also speak of different stages in the argument of the thesis. There is an argument within each chapter dealing with each class of facts. Together these arguments represent

the main argument of the thesis. The interrelation of argument and evidence in the progress of the thesis through its different chapters may be represented diagrammatically.

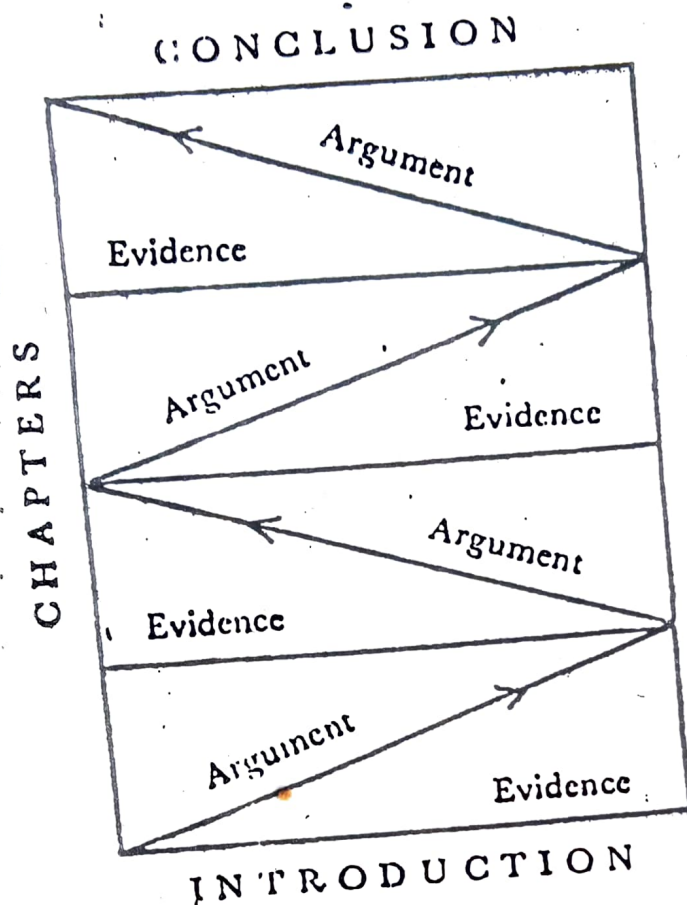


DIAGRAM 2

3. METHODS OF ORGANIZATION

Now, the question before us is how we can carry out the logical organization of the thesis. On collecting the material, the immediate temptation is to render the classified data directly into the chapters or divisions of the thesis. The research worker may mentally arrange the classes of his material in a certain sequence and write them out one chapter by chapter, part by part. The thesis is thus made advantage of quickness. But one cannot be quite certain about the unity of the whole work.

A safer method would be to let the classified data pass through an intermediate stage of synopsis before they

become the chapters. We may first make the nucleus of the thesis by writing out an outline of it and then enlarge this outline by supplying the details. The utility of making the thesis in essence first is that its internal unity is more easily ascertained and checked within a small compass than in a wide area. When the full thesis comes to be drafted after the investigator has in this manner assured himself about the unity, the chances of his losing his way among the mass of detail are much less than in the other case.

The actual mode of implementing this method may be described, as follows. Suppose there are four classes of facts to form four chapters or divisions in the thesis. Within each class there would be at least two grades of data, which we may call 'primary' and 'secondary'. The primary facts are those that are absolutely essential, foundational, which we cannot afford to omit. It is these that make the framework of the thesis. The secondary facts are the details which build up the primary ones through illustration, substantiation, clarification, etc. The primary data in each of the four classes could first be drawn upon to make a synopsis of the thesis in four parts. By writing them out in a logical sequence, we would be ready with the framework of the thesis. The synopsis could then be subjected to close scrutiny for its organic integrity. After making such revisions as are called for by requirements of organization, the synopsis could be uniformly expanded by fitting in the secondary data in the appropriate parts and places within parts. This means that the investigator now writes the thesis in full, incorporating the substance of the synopsis and supplying the details at each relevant step in the sequence. The following diagram represents the two stages of this method.

This method of organization, unlike the one earlier mentioned, proceeds from the whole to the parts. It necessarily takes more time. But it has the advantage of

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THESIS

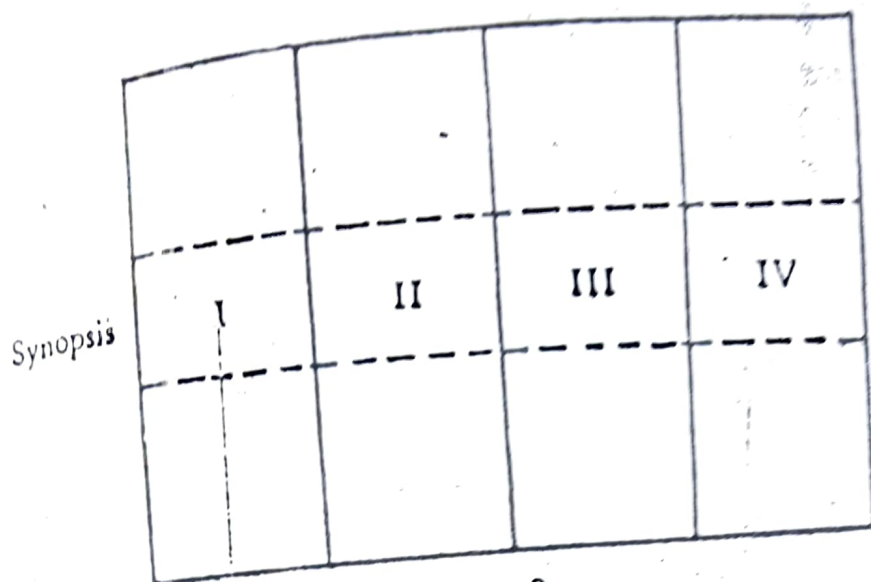


DIAGRAM 3

greater systematization because of the assumption that the whole is more important than the parts and that it informs and determines the nature of the parts. Perhaps the only exception to the need for a synopsis would be a text-based project of such a nature that the researcher has no need to alter the order of the contents in the text in order to interpret them.

4. KINDS OF SYNOPSES REQUIRED IN RESEARCH

Writing a synopsis is required more than once in a research undertaking. Earlier we have referred to the need for preparing a synopsis even before commencing the work of collecting material (pp. 24-25). The advantages of this preliminary synopsis, as we said earlier, are that it gives the investigator confidence in the choice of his subject and enables him to initiate action. We called it a working synopsis. The synopsis that we have recommended for purposes of organization comes in the middle of the undertaking. A third synopsis at the end of the work also may often be required. Most establishments nowadays require that the candidate who supplicates for a research degree submit a synopsis a few months before he submits his thesis. Now, this final synopsis should be distinguished from the two synopses we have already referred to. The

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preliminary synopsis and the mid-synopsis come in advance of the full-fledged thesis. The first synopsis prepares the ground for the thesis and the second executes it. Both are therefore subject to revision, sometimes major revision. But the formal synopsis demanded by the establishment at the end of the undertaking is intended to give to the adjudicator an idea of the contents of the thesis which he will be assessing. Thus its purpose is not to help the writer himself but to introduce the work to another. It should therefore be almost final and fairly represent the thesis. This means that it can be prepared only after finalizing the draft of the thesis.

CHAPTER VIII

PRESENTATION

1. THE FORM OF THE THESIS

As indicated earlier, presentation consists in attending to the externals of the thesis, its body. Several items make the formal appearance of the thesis. The main parts of a thesis and their arrangement may be shown as follows.

Preliminaries:—

Title page, preface, table of contents, and list of abbreviations (if notes are given within the text)

Text:—

Introduction, chapters, and conclusion (all with notes if preferred in text)

Back matter:—

Notes (if preferred here) preceded by abbreviations, appendices (if any), and bibliography

There are also important aspects to these parts. The text and notes may contain quotations and transliterated words. The text may also contain illustrations. Titles are given for each part and sub-part. The pages of the whole work have to be numbered. And permeating the parts is the style of the thesis.

There are good books which give the research worker detailed guidance on how to attend to these various ingredients in a thesis. Some of them have been referred to in

PRESENTATION

the bibliography of this book. Here we shall confine ourselves to the broad principles relating to the methodology of presentation.

2. TITLE PAGE

The title is given in capital letters on the top of the page and centred in the line. The title should be short but indicative of the scope of the thesis. If it happens to take more than one line, the lines should form an inverted pyramid. In the middle of the page should be given the information about the establishment to which the work is submitted, the degree for which it is submitted, and by whom in this order. At the bottom of the page should come the name of the institution or department through which it is submitted and the month and year of submission.

3. PREFACE

A preface is not part of the body of the thesis. It stands out and makes known the thesis. It should therefore be brief. It may contain the background to the writer's choice of the topic and the chief object of his undertaking. But it cannot afford to explain in detail the nature of the problem, the method of treatment, the solution offered, and the material relied upon. All these should be reserved for the introduction. Besides referring to the topic, the preface must also record acknowledgements for help received from persons and institutions. If the writer has little to say about the subject at this stage, the label 'Acknowledgements' could be used instead of 'Preface'. By the very nature of its content a preface or acknowledgements cannot be written until the thesis is in final form. The preface may be placed either before or after the table of contents.

4. TABLE OF CONTENTS

This should show the titles of all the items of the preliminaries, the text, and the back matter with the pages

where they begin. The number and wording of the titles should be identical with those given inside the work.

As regards the items of the text, it is desirable that the table is analytical, i.e. showing not only the main headings but all the sub-headings also. The hierarchy of headings and sub-headings could be indicated by suitable indentation, types, and numbers.

5: ABBREVIATIONS OF TITLES CITED

Titles of works frequently referred to in the notes need not be stated in full every time. The writer is free to invent suitable abbreviations for them. But a key to the abbreviations should be provided in advance. The list of abbreviations should come among the preliminaries if the notes are given within the pages of the text. The list goes into the back matter if all the notes are placed there.

There is no rule for devising the abbreviations of titles. Their only principle is that they should avoid needless complexity. The title of a book or journal is written in italics (or underlined) with each key word (noun or adjective) beginning with a capital letter. Hence an abbreviation is usually made by combining the first letters of the key words of the title and writing them in italic capitals (or by underlining them), e.g. *BG* for *Bhagavad Gītā*. Subsequent letters could be added in lower cases to distinguish two instances of works that have the same first letters in their names. For example, if *KU* is used for *Kena Upaniṣad*, *Kau.U* could be used for *Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad*.

6. INTRODUCTION

With the introduction begins the actual text of the thesis. The introduction explains in detail the nature and importance of the problem proposed to be discussed, the particular method adopted by the investigator to deal with it, and the solution to the problem which he has discovered.

In writing on these three elements, the introduction should show how the work is a contribution to knowledge. The introduction should also state the nature of the sources from which material has been drawn. The introduction is substantially the first chapter of the work. Formally also it may be described as the first chapter unless the writer prefers to call the next one by that description. It may occupy the length of any other chapter. It may be entitled 'introduction' or given a suitable alternative title. In any case, it should serve the purpose of introducing the rest of the chapters. The introduction should be written with much care. The manner in which the introduction is composed will set the trend for the rest of the work. A good introduction will enable the reader to have the whole work in perspective and stimulate his interest.

7. CHAPTERS

The chapters represent stages in the argument of the thesis, each stage resting on a distinct class of data. Some measure of uniformity may be maintained in the size of the chapters. The nature of the argument contained in a chapter should be reflected in the title of the chapter. The title of the chapter is centred and typed in capitals throughout. A chapter may be divided and sub-divided according to topics and their aspects, each division and sub-division carrying its own title. The kinds of headings that may be employed for divisions and sub-divisions are centred headings, side headings, and paragraph headings. Centred headings are used for major divisions. Side headings are used for sub-divisions represented by related groups of paragraphs. They are typed flush with the left margin. Individual paragraphs may carry headings. While centred and side headings are separated from the text by a space above and below, a paragraph heading runs on with the paragraph but is separated from the text by a full stop. It must be noted that since division implies more than one part, there must be at least two heads whether they are centre heads, side heads or paragraph heads.

The hierarchy of these titles may further be indicated by suitable variations in cases and numbers. Speaking of cases, major titles may be capitalized. A sub-title may be typed with the first letter of the title and the first letter of each key word (noun or adjective) in capital and all the other letters in the lower case. The title may be underlined if necessary. A paragraph heading is in the lower case except for the first letter. The titles may be serialized by using numerals and letters. If both Roman and Arabic numerals are employed, the Roman indicates a higher order of title. If both capital and small letters are used, the capital indicates a higher order. If both numerals and letters are applied, the numerals and letters should alternate, e.g.

I.

A.

1.

a.

An alternative to using different numerals and letters is to use numerals (Arabic) separated by points, e.g.

1.1.1.

1.1.2.

1.2.1.

1.2.2.

2.1.1.

3. CONCLUSION

Like the introduction, the conclusion may be formally described and numbered as a chapter or denoted separately. It could occupy the length of a chapter or even less. Again, whether it is called 'conclusion' or given an alternative description, its purpose is to bring finality to the product. It should recall to the reader the claim made in the introduction and then, on the basis of the whole argument of the work, it should reiterate that claim. For this purpose it has to gather up and restate in summary form

the findings of each chapter, and the logic of this restatement should be such as to highlight the soul of the argument in the thesis. In doing this work, the conclusion must, of course, adopt its own form of expression. If it repeats the words of the introduction and chapters, it will only be a stale exercise. In addition to this main task, the conclusion may also refer, where necessary, to problems that have arisen in the course of the thesis but which lie beyond its scope.

9. APPENDICES

In general, appendix means any matter that is added to the body of the work at the end of the work. In this wide sense it includes the bibliography, which is found in published and unpublished works, and the index and glossary of published works. But in a particular sense the term is applied to any matter at the back which is specially connected with the theme of the work and which is other than the bibliography and so on. This special back matter may be in the form of illustrations (other than those given in the text), lists or running matter. As the name itself suggests, an appendix is any matter which is relevant to the subject but not essential to its treatment. Being not essential, its inclusion in the text will interrupt its readability. But, being relevant, the author is reluctant to discard it altogether. Hence it is annexed to the text at its end. The author has to decide for himself whether something is to be included in the text or relegated to the appendix. The test in each case is whether the omission of the matter from the text will in any way weaken the argument. If the argument can stand without it, it means that the matter supplies only additional information. All that is then required in the text is to direct the interested reader to this supplemental matter in the appendix.

Besides the title 'appendix', a suitable descriptive title may be given. If there are more than one appendix, each appendix should be lettered such as A, B, C. Appendices

(xes) may be placed either before the bibliography or after it at the discretion of the writer.

10. BIBLIOGRAPHY

A bibliography is a complete and detailed list of written sources consulted for producing the work, whether they are cited in the work or not. The sources should be entered in alphabetical order. The bibliography may be made as a single comprehensive list or divided into two or more parts according to classes of sources. If the latter practice is adopted, a separate alphabetical order is followed for each class. A sample classification would be primary and secondary sources or classics and modern works or books, articles, and unpublished sources.

There is no absolute rule regarding the order of details in a bibliographical entry. There are different practices, but whichever practice is chosen, it should be followed consistently in a work. The details to be given in the case of published works are at least the following: author, title, and imprint, i.e. details of publication. Some general conventions may be mentioned here.

(1) For alphabetical arrangement the author's name is given with the surname or (where there is no surname) the own name coming first, e.g. Datta, D. M.; Hiriyanna, M. (By contrast, in the note the name is written in the natural order: D. M. Datta; M. Hiriyanna.)

(2) The title of a book or journal is underlined or italicized, but the title of an article is put in inverted commas. All titles are written in full (as in the title page, not as in the spine) with the key words beginning with a capital letter.

(3) The main points of imprint are place of publication, publisher's full name (not full address), and the year of the publication consulted. (The year of first publication, if it is different, may be mentioned in brackets.) In

the case of journals the place of publication and the publisher's name are not included as these are usually well known.

(4) Each entry begins flush with the left margin. If an entry exceeds a line, the subsequent lines are indented.

(5) One entry is separated from another by a double space.

(6) If two consecutive entries are works of the same author, the author's name is either repeated or represented by a short solid line.

Some models for bibliographical entry are shown below.

Author, *Book*, Publisher, Place, Year

Author, *Book*, Place: Publisher, Year

Author, Year, *Book*, Place: Publisher

Author, 'Article', *Journal*, Volume, Date, Inclusive pages

11. NOTES

Notes are devices for supporting the text of the thesis. Unlike the matter for an appendix, the matter for a note is essential to the argument of the text but not so important as to be incorporated into the body of the text. It is for the writer to decide whether something is sufficiently important to be part of the text. If it is not, its inclusion in the text may interfere with the smooth readability of the text. Its right place, then, is the note.

Notes should be employed sparingly and only on purpose. Too many, too frequent or too long notes can distract the reader's attention from the more important elements in the argument. Notes may be employed for two purposes: citation and explanation.

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The occasions for citation are the following.

- (1) To acknowledge the source which is directly noted or from which information is drawn.
- (2) To refer the reader to further sources of information on a point which has been sufficiently discussed from the point of view of the author.

Notes are employed for explanation on the following occasions.

- (1) To clarify, supplement or comment on a point in the text of the thesis when such a procedure, if adopted in the text, is likely to interrupt the main argument.
- (2) To refer the reader to another part of the thesis which is connected with the point at issue (cross reference).
- (3) To refer to the prevalence of a rival view on a point of controversy if it is not necessary to discuss that view.
- (4) To give the original version of the material that has been translated or paraphrased in the thesis.

Notes may be entered (1) at the foot of a page, (2) at the end of a chapter or (3) at the end of the work. In the first alternative it is specially called 'footnote', not in the others. Each place has its practical advantages and disadvantages for the writer and the reader. Notes at foot of page make for easy reference, but the writer is obliged to keep them short and few. Notes at end of chapter or book could be more and longer but are inconvenient for frequent reference. But whichever place the writer chooses must be maintained consistently for the whole work.

There are conventions to be followed in entering notes. Some of them are of a general nature. Other conventions are special to the place or purpose of a note.

PRESENTATION

(1) Reference to all notes is made by superior figures (small-type Arabic numerals raised one half space above line) in the text at the places where notes are desired.

(2) Footnotes may be numbered independently for each page, consecutively for each chapter or consecutively for the whole work. Notes at chapter end are to be numbered consecutively for the whole chapter. Notes at end of work may be numbered consecutively for the whole work if they are not many. Otherwise, they may be numbered consecutively for each chapter.

(3) All notes, whether they are complete sentences or not, are terminated by a full stop.

(4) In all cases the first line of a note is indented like a paragraph. Every subsequent line is separated from the previous by a single space. Two successive notes are separated by a double space.

(5) Footnotes are separated from the text by a double space. Footnotes should not encroach on the bottom margin of a page.

(6) If the footnotes on a page are very short ones, they need not be arranged one below another. Two of them could be given on the same line with an interval of three spaces.

(7) If a footnote overflows a page, it is good to break it in mid-sentence. The broken sense will then easily lead the reader to the continuation of the note on the next page. It is not desirable to continue a footnote beyond two pages.

(8) The minimum details needed for a citatory note are author (or editor), full title of source, and page(s) to which reference is made. The name of the author should be written as it normally occurs, e.g. M. Hiriyanna; D.M. Datta (cf. Bibliography). The title of the work should be underlined or italicized. Both author and title are

covered by an abbreviation where one is employed. Details about the sources referred to can be reserved for the bibliography, because the aim of a citatory note is only to point to the specific location of an idea or a statement. Labour-saving contractions, such as *ibid.*, *op. cit.*, etc. may be meaningfully employed in citatory notes.

(9) A note that is intended to clarify, supplement or comment on a point in the text sometimes tends to be long. But a note should not appear more prominent than the text. Hence in a case like this the conversion of the note into an appendix is to be considered. Alternatively, the more important elements in the explanation may be absorbed into the text, thereby reducing the size of the note.

12. ILLUSTRATIONS

The word illustration could mean either example or picture. We are now using the term in the latter sense: visual representation on plain surface. Pictorial representation is broadly of two types: tables, or information in tabular form, and figures. Figures include photographs (plates), paintings, maps, charts, graphs, and diagrams. Any illustration by the hand is called graphic representation.

Illustration should be purposive. Irrelevant illustration merely to inflate the size of the work or produce an impression on the reader should be avoided. The purpose of any kind of illustration is not to substitute the verbal matter but to assist it. And graphic representation will help discussion only if it is made as simple as possible. Complex and cramped representation will confuse rather than clarify.

In some subjects illustration is indispensable as an aid to discussion. In philosophy diagram may be resorted to at discretion, but it is difficult, the subject-matter being abstract. Special care is necessary to see that diagrams do not become either redundant or confounding. If the verbal

account is by itself comprehensible, diagram is not called for. It may be employed only if it will help to fix the idea for which words have to be strained.

Illustrations are best inserted at appropriate places in the text of the thesis unless practical considerations compel their transfer to the end of the text. All illustrations should be suitably introduced in the text. Illustrations inserted in the text should follow as closely to their introduction as possible. Illustrations placed at the end of the text should be presented in the same order in which they are introduced in the text.

13. TITLES, OR HEADINGS

We have already referred to the application of titles in the title page, table of contents, and chapters. What we are now concerned with is the general technique of constructing titles, which covers the following conventions.

(1) The title of the work or of any part of it should be in the form of a statement and not in the form of a question or an exclamation.

(2) The statement should not be constructed as a complete sentence. It should not therefore be terminated by a full stop. The only exception is the paragraph heading, which has to be shown off the text in the same line.

(3) The statement should be as short as possible and at the same time clearly indicative of the content of what follows.

(4) Catchy or misleading titles should be avoided in research productions. Titles should be plain and at the same time crisp.

14. PAGINATION

Every page in a thesis has a page number, whether the number is actually entered or not. The usual practice is

give one series of numbers to the text and back matter and another series to the preliminary matter. It is assumed that the preliminaries are prepared only after the text is completed. The differentiation is made by using Arabic numerals for the text and back matter and small Roman numerals for the preliminaries. The first series begins with the title page and ends with the last page of the preliminaries. The next series begins with the first page of the text and ends with the last page of the back matter.

15. QUOTATIONS

Quotations could occur both in the text and in the notes. Quoting should be on definite purpose. Quoting for the sake of filling space or for displaying one's erudition is a sign of weakness. The occasions for quoting are the following.

(1) When the quotation itself is the subject of discussion.

(2) When the quotation will lend support to one's own argument.

(3) When the writer quoted has expressed something in such a brief and effective manner that his words cannot be improved upon.

(4) When the original statement is such that a paraphrase of it might lead to misinterpretation by the reader.

Quotations must follow certain conventions. The more important ones may be stated here.

(1) Quotations must be accurate to the word, spelling and punctuation. When there is an obvious error in the original, the reproducer can indicate that the error is of the original author, not his own, by inserting the word *sic* immediately after the error (*sic* = so, thus). The authorship of the quotation, when given, must also be correct.

PRESENTATION

(2) Any insertion made in the original by the user out of absolute necessity should be put in square brackets, e.g. [sic].

(3) Any omission (ellipsis) made in the original by the user, e.g. to drop words or sentences not relevant to his purpose, should be indicated by three spaced full stops, called ellipsis periods. Omission should be made with great care, so that the spirit of the original is not altered.

(4) Quoting should be honest. Using a quotation to prove something which its author never intended to do is unfair. Even without the intention to misquote, the meaning of a quotation may be misrepresented if it is applied apart from its context.

(5) Except when the quotation itself is under discussion, if quotations are too long or too frequent, they will tend to usurp the place of the investigator's own words. And extensive quotations from a published work require the previous permission of the copyright holder.

(6) Short quotations, say up to four lines of prose or one line of verse, should be run on in the text and enclosed in quotation marks. Long quotations should be introduced by a colon, marked off by a change of line, indented uniformly from the left margin, and presented without quotation marks.

(7) Quotations in footnotes should be as short as possible. Notes given at the end of a chapter or of the whole work could afford to carry longer quotations.

(8) Quotation marks (inverted commas) are either single or double. Opinion differs on which is normally to be used. Single quotation marks, being simpler, are reasonable, but double quotation marks are more conspicuous. Whichever practice the writer chooses to follow should be followed consistently throughout the work.

(9) When a quotation occurs within a quotation, the inner, or subsidiary, quotation should be distinguished from the outer, or main, quotation by a change of marks from what is normally used by the writer. That is to say, if single quotation marks are normally used, they should be used for the outer quotation and double marks should be used for the inner. Conversely, if the normal practice is to use double quotation marks, the outer quotation should have them and the inner quotation should be put in single quotation marks. (We have earlier said that the punctuation of anything quoted should not be altered. The only exception to this is the type of marks for an internal quotation, which is a quotation already found in a passage desired to be quoted. And the change is to be made consistently with the practice of the reproducer.)

16. TRANSLITERATION

[Translation is giving the meaning of something said or written in one language in another language. But when a word or a passage written in one language in its own characters is rewritten in the characters of another language, the act is called transliteration.] To an investigator working on Indian philosophy, for instance, transliteration is unavoidable additional work. Technical terms and passages from sources in Sanskrit, Tamil, and other classical Indian languages have to be transliterated for reproduction in the thesis. When the language in which the thesis is presented is English, difficulties will be encountered in typing or printing the foreign (foreign to English) words and sentences in between. At the most indented passages in the text and passages given as notes may be produced in the original characters. But individual words, phrases, and short passages that run on in the text and words and phrases that run on in the notes have necessarily to be transliterated. The consideration here is not only practical but also aesthetic. A mixture of Roman and non-Roman letters in the same line would be ungainly.

The transliteration of Indian (non-Roman) letters into Roman involves the use of diacritical marks. These marks are used to distinguish the different sounds intended to be conveyed by the same letter (diacritical=capable of distinguishing). There are special sounds in each language. Hence the need for these marks when one language is rendered in the characters of another. The diacritical marks frequently used for transliterating the characters of Indian languages into Roman characters are the following.

- ['] acute accent (used above a letter)
- [-] macron (used above or below a letter)
- [.] dot (used above or below a letter)
- [~] tilde (used above a letter)

The scheme for transliterating the Devanāgarī script used for Sanskrit is as follows. (This is the scheme generally followed by orientalists.)

Vowels

अ a	आ ā	इ i	ई ī	उ u	ऊ ū	ऋ ṛ
ॠ ṛ	लृ ḷ	ए e	ऐ ai	ओ o	औ au	
[.] (anusvāra) ṁ	[:] (visarga) ḥ					

Consonants

क k	ख kh	ग g	घ gh	ङ ṅ
च c	छ ch	ज j	झ jh	ञ ñ
ट ṭ	ठ ṭh	ड ḍ	ढ ḍh	ण ṇ
त t	थ th	द d	ध dh	न n
प p	फ ph	ब b	भ bh	म m
य y	र r	ल l	व v	
श ṣ	स s	ह h		
ळ ḷ	क्ष ks	ज्ञ jñ		

The scheme given above is broadly applicable to other Indian languages also. Variations or additions may be required for special sounds in any of them. Here are some examples:

(1) In the case of Tamil 'e' is used for the short vowel ஏ and 'ē' for the long vowel ஈ . Likewise in the case of Malayalam.

(2) In the case of Tamil (and Malayalam) the sound of ய is represented by 'y'.

(3) In the case of Tamil 'r' is used for ர , 'y' for ஔ , and 'n' for ன .

The transliterated words, because they are foreign to English, are normally to be underlined or italicized. But when the native form of a word has been altered, the word is not to be underlined or italicized. For example, there is a deviation when an 's' is added as in English to a Sanskrit word to yield a plural (as in 'jīvas') or when a writer prefers to use a capital letter to indicate a proper name (as in 'Brahman') though there is no capital letter in Sanskrit. In all such cases the underline or the italics is to be dispensed with. Even when there is no deviation, a writer may choose not to underline or italicize those terms which are too well known in the field or too frequently used in the text whenever they occur individually instead of in original passages. This, however, requires the writer to decide carefully what terms are to be treated thus with consistency.

17. COMMON SCHOLARLY ABBREVIATIONS

These have to be distinguished from informal abbreviations and formal abbreviations used in common language.

Informal abbreviations, like 'didn't', 'haven't', 'lab.', and 'maths.', should always be avoided in serious writing.

PRESENTATION

Formal abbreviations employed in common language may be used in serious writing also but with the following qualification. Only those which are of Latin origin may be used in complete sentences and therefore in the text, for example, i.e. for *id est*, e.g. for *exempli gratia*, and viz. for *videlicet*. Others, such as Rd. for Road, Prof. for Professor, and symbols like 1st, 2nd, etc. for first, second, etc., should be avoided in sentences, and the words should be written in full. Hence these cannot occur in the text. Even in the notes they may be used only outside sentences.

We are now concerned with abbreviations used by scholars for economizing space in mutual communication. They are usually used in notes. They may even be used in the text when the technical discussion demands the frequent use of what they represent.

There are scholarly abbreviations commonly used in all disciplines and there are those which are special to particular disciplines. A select list of common scholarly abbreviations is given below. Some of these, though of Latin origin, are not italicized, or underlined, nowadays because of their familiarity. Generally it is advisable to use a full stop after an abbreviation whether the abbreviation carries the last letter of the word abbreviated or not.

anon. anonymous

ch., chs. chapter(s)

cf. (*confer*) compare

ed. editor, edition, edited by (Some prefer 'edn.' for 'edition'.)

enl. enlarged

et al. (*et alii*) and others

et seq. (*et sequens*) and the following (persons or things)

fig., figs. figure(s)

ibid. (or ib.) (*ibidem*) in the same place, i.e. the same source which has been cited in the immediately preceding note

l., ll. line(s)

MS., MSS. Manuscript(s)

n., nn. note(s)

n.d. no date (of publication)

n.p. no place (of publication)

p., pp. page(s)

par., pars. paragraph(s)

pub. published, publication

q.v. (*quod vide*) which see

rev. revised (by), revision

st., sts. stanza(s)

trans. (or tr.) translator, translation, translated by

v., vv. verse(s)

v.d. various dates

vol., vols. volume(s) (Note 'Vol. II' but 'of 2 vols.')

Besides abbreviations some brief reference words are also used, e.g.:—

passim throughout the work, here and there

sic thus, so

vide see

18. STYLE

We have so far been concerned with the parts of the thesis and their arrangement. The manner of writing the thesis is its style. The kind of style adopted shows the tone, or general spirit, in which the writer approaches his audience.

There are certain qualities that mark the good style in any kind of writing.

(1) The language will observe the rules of spelling, grammar, and punctuation. Polite communication requires adherence to the recognized rules of a language.

(2) The language will conform to current usage. Usage is the body of conventions on the use of a language. Usage is wider than grammar and often precedes it. Ways of using words may become established through continued practice. They may or may not lend themselves to existing grammatical rules. But they enrich the language. Hence good writers always keep abreast of usage.

(3) The language will be free from faults such as clichés (hackneyed expressions), needless exaggeration, needless or careless repetition of words, and cacophony (unpleasant mixture of sounds). Above all it will avoid verbosity, or circumlocution. This is saying in many words what may be said in a few words, i.e. roundabout expression. Words are tools of thought, not ends in themselves. The good style is one which makes the meaning clear. So it is simple and direct.

Besides possessing these general qualities, research writing is expected to maintain certain special features. Reporting research is by a scholar to a scholar. Scholarly writing is both formal and courteous. The conditions of formality and courtesy may now be indicated.

(1) The writer must avoid being casual in tone. Colloquial expressions, rhetorical questions, exclamations, witticisms, informal abbreviations, and broken sentences should be avoided, and an attitude of serious purpose should be maintained. Connected with this attitude is the avoidance of the personal pronoun, which projects the writer rather than the subject. The manner of constructing the sentences should be impersonal, so as to let the subject speak for itself. The observance of these conventions makes for formality. However, care should be taken to avoid excessive formality. Each field has its technical

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age, or jargon. Its use wherever necessary is quite natural. But excessive use of jargon out of anxiety to be formal may render the style either rigid and gritty or pompous and pretentious. Scholarly writing is not invariably gobbledygook.

(2) Courtesy to the reader and to other writers is another distinguishing mark of scholarly writing. The research writer should always remember that he is writing for learned persons. He should therefore avoid labouring the obvious and supplying elementary information on the subject. He should keep to the level of his contribution to knowledge. Even here he should be careful. The author has both the right and the duty to bring to the attention of the reader the originality of his contribution. But he should avoid making tall claims about the importance of his findings and slighting the work of other researchers in the same area. It may be necessary for him to criticize their conclusions in order to establish his own, but such criticism should purely be in the interests of truth and therefore observe academic respect. Strong language is to be avoided while criticizing others. The recommendation here is not that the writer should be meek and apologetic. He should emit confidence but not arrogance.

It is not easy to keep one's balance on these conventions of formality and courtesy. Good research writing is therefore an art by itself.

CHAPTER IX

CRITICAL EDITION OF WORKS

1. THE MEANING OF CRITICAL EDITION

'To edit' means to prepare another person's writing for publication. The act of edition is usually done according to the requirements of the editor. For example, the record of a person's speech may require modification of form, pruning, arrangement of material, etc. before being presented as a book or included in a journal. What is called critical edition does not involve any change from the point of view of the editor. It is the preparation of a person's writing from his own point of view. It views the work in an objective manner. That is to say, the aim of critical edition is to find out what the author has actually written, whether the content or method of the author is agreeable to the editor or not. Critical edition seeks to restore, or reconstruct, the text, as far as possible, to the form in which it could have been originally made by the author. To reconstruct the text to its native form, the editor has to resist without remiss the temptation to revise the text to a form which he considers satisfactory. Critical edition is also called textual criticism. It is a criticism, or discussion, not about the ideas in the text but about the text itself, i.e. the verbal expression, or wording, of the composition.

Thus a critical edition is a special type of edition which restores another's writing to its authentic form for the sake of publication. The occasion for a critical edition is either when an unknown work has not been published so far or when an existing publication is found to be not

more often by ancient works than by recent ones, because it is in the former that the original form is more likely to have been obscured.

2. MATERIAL REQUIRED FOR A CRITICAL EDITION

The material required is of two types: primary and secondary. The primary, or basic, material is also called critical apparatus. This mainly consists of all the manuscripts of the work that are available. It also includes all the editions of the work already published when it is felt that these editions are not entirely authentic. Since all these have to be consulted, the editor should first collect all the available manuscripts and editions of the work.

Manuscripts are of two kinds: autographs and copies. An autograph is a manuscript written in the author's own hand. A copy is a reproduction of a manuscript. It is otherwise called a transmitted text. If an autograph is available, and is sufficiently known to be genuine, copies can be dispensed with. But such a possibility is very rare. The faithfulness of handwritten copies to the original cannot always be guaranteed. The possibility of deterioration increases with successive copying mostly through carelessness, sometimes even by deliberate alteration. This adds to the difficulty of determining the original reading. In recent times critical edition is facilitated by photocopies, which are exact.

The secondary material represents all the aids to the use of the primary material, such as ancient commentaries, epitomes, adaptations, and anthologies. They indirectly help in fixing the reading of the text. The editor must collect all the available secondary material also before proceeding with the edition.

3. FIXING THE DEFINITIVE READING OF THE TEXT

Out of the material collected the editor has now to find out what would be the definitive reading of the work. The word 'definitive' is of course used here with reference to all the manuscripts so far collected and consulted. The editor can say nothing decisive about the reading for the future; he has still to leave room for the theoretical possibility of finding a variation in reading in a manuscript hitherto undiscovered.

Fixing the definitive reading is done by collating the collected manuscripts, i.e. comparing them in detail. The manuscripts compared are bound to vary in reading. The problem for the editor is to decide which among the readings is the correct one. There are certain principles to be followed for identifying the correct reading. We may mention them briefly.

(1) Mistakes in the copies which are obviously of the scribe, or copyist, can be corrected if they are insignificant.

(2) The older a copy is the greater is the possibility of its being faithful to the original.

(3) A reading that violates the rules of grammar is normally rejected, because no worthy writer could be expected to be unfamiliar with grammar. It is likely that the error is that of a scribe. But if the same grammatical error occurs in many copies, it is likely that the error is in the original and that the copies have faithfully transmitted it.

(4) In the case of verses a reading that violates the metre is normally rejected.

(5) The hard reading is likely to be faithful to the original, for rare and archaic words are likely to be changed to the common and current ones by the scribes.

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(6) The shorter version is likely to be earlier and therefore nearer the original than the longer version, for the latter may contain interpolations.

(7) Intrinsic probability is another guide. With reference to each reading the editor asks himself whether this is the reading that the author is likely to have produced. The answer may be found by considering internal evidence, namely the method in general by which the author deals with his topic and the overall manner in which he expresses himself. A reading that departs from the author's general method and style is not likely to be the correct one.

4. RECORDING THE RESULTS OF COLLATION

The application of principles like the above results in the acceptance of some manuscripts, the rejection of some others, and suspense of judgement about the rest. The definitive reading is based on the manuscripts selected for acceptance. Although the other manuscripts are not used in the edition, the editor owes a duty to tell the readers as to why he has not relied on them. Hence the introduction to the edition usually carries, apart from other accounts, a detailed list of the entire critical apparatus which was consulted and collated, its classification into manuscripts accepted, manuscripts rejected, and manuscripts whose acceptability is in doubt, together with the reasons why the manuscripts rejected or doubted have been so treated. If there are manuscripts which have been collated only in part, the exact portion collated should also be mentioned.

5. EQUIPMENT FOR A CRITICAL EDITOR

The basic qualification required for critical edition is expert knowledge of the language in which the work is composed. The editor should closely understand the meaning of the readings in order to fix the definitive reading. But linguistic expertise is not the only qualification. A purely verbal interpretation of the meaning of the text may some-

times mislead the editor in regard to the definitive reading. Besides language the editor needs to possess knowledge of the subject dealt with by the text. Critically editing a philosophical work requires knowledge of philosophy or of the concerned school. Likewise knowledge of music, astrology, medicine, etc. is required for critically editing works in those subjects. It is true that in textual criticism the merits of the contents presented by the text are not to be discussed. Yet, a knowledge of the subject to which the contents relate is found necessary for fixing the definitive reading.

(1) The same word may be used in different secondary senses in different disciplines to stand for concepts special to those disciplines. When a word is employed in a secondary sense special to a particular discipline, taking the word in the primary meaning is not the proper basis for collating different readings. And the special secondary sense applicable to the branch of knowledge dealt with by the text would be familiar only to one who knows that branch of knowledge.

(2) Special technical terms occur in each subject which do not find a place in other subjects. These linguistic devices would be followed only by those who are grounded in the concerned subjects.

(3) The application of internal evidence, or intrinsic probability, as a principle of fixing the reading requires that the editor comprehends the spirit of the author's entire composition. This is possible only if the editor knows the subject.

For these reasons critical edition is undertaken by one who is well versed not only in the language of the text but also in the subject dealt with by the text. In the absence of an individual who possesses both these qualifications the work may be undertaken by a language expert and a subject expert in collaboration with each other. But such collaboration is possible only when each has a working knowledge of the other's specialization.

6. THE PLACE OF CRITICAL EDITION IN PHILOSOPHICAL RESEARCH

It is sometimes argued that editing a philosophical work does not amount to research in philosophy. This is not correct.

One of the main types of research in the realm of philosophy is the discussion of the contents of philosophical texts. If the text chosen happens to be an ancient one, the discussion of it presupposes the presence of an established critical edition of it. If no critical edition is available or if existing editions are not satisfactory, it is necessary to prepare a critical edition of the work before its contents could be investigated. And the task of critically editing a philosophical work, as we have already seen, involves expert knowledge of philosophy besides linguistic proficiency. Thus critical edition of philosophical works is a necessary part of text-based philosophical research.

CHAPTER X

EPISTEMOLOGY AND THE METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH IN PHILOSOPHY

Among the three broad divisions of philosophy epistemology could be described as a methodology. But the methodology which epistemology represents is not the same as the methodology of research in philosophy, which is the subject-matter of this book. It is necessary to show this distinction in view of the fact that there is sometimes a confusion between the two. But before we do so, it is desirable to see in what respect epistemology is a methodology.

1. THE RELATION BETWEEN EPISTEMOLOGY AND METAPHYSICS

Epistemology may be described as the methodology of metaphysics. While metaphysics constructs a knowledge of reality, epistemology studies the methods by which the knowledge of reality is acquired and the validity of that knowledge. What are the conditions under which knowledge can be said to be true? What are the methods of knowing and how far do they fulfil the conditions of truth? These are the questions to which epistemology is devoted. Thus epistemology critically examines the foundations of metaphysics.

Metaphysics takes for granted the adequacy of its methods to give correct knowledge of reality and fixes its attention on the knowledge that results by applying those methods. Each school of metaphysics has its own criterion of truth and in terms of that criterion it assumes that the methods it employs are adequate to know reality. In fact,

the differences that we find among schools of metaphysics in regard to the conception of reality arise from the differences in the methods employed by them and the standards of truth involved in these methods. Therefore there is need for a special examination of the criteria and methods of metaphysics. By retrospectively examining these, epistemology serves as a useful auxiliary to metaphysics. It can help expose the pitfalls of metaphysicians and thereby secure the metaphysical pursuit.

In the Western tradition the work done by classical and medieval metaphysicians in their concern for what exists directly or indirectly led to the identification of methods like rationalism, empiricism, pragmatism, conceptual analysis, and hermeneutics. And the examination of these methods had in turn its varied impact on the subsequent course of metaphysics. In the Indian tradition, likewise, the contribution of various schools of philosophy in their search for reality evoked critical reviews among themselves of the different methods employed by them, such as *pratyakṣa*, *anumāna*, *upamāna*, and *śabda*. And conversely, the mutual criticism of these methods played an important part in the historical development of the schools themselves.

The close relation between metaphysics and epistemology may be viewed from two standpoints, logical and psychological, i.e. the standpoint of rational justification and the standpoint of origin respectively. From the logical standpoint epistemology may be said to be prior to metaphysics. Epistemology shows the reason why a certain type of metaphysics has taken such and such a course. The standard of truth assumed and the corresponding means adopted for attaining true knowledge determine the results of a metaphysical effort. Hence by first looking into the epistemological position of a school, it is possible to follow the nature and worth of its metaphysics. Such a procedure for learning or teaching philosophy may be described as deductive because it passes from principles to results. This is the procedure usually followed in text-books on philosophy.

From the psychological point of view metaphysics may be said to be prior to epistemology. Epistemology, as we have noted, has to discuss the methods of knowing reality. But methods do not exist in the abstract; they are involved in a task. We can discern the methods of metaphysics only when they reveal themselves in the exercise of metaphysics. Hence it is metaphysics that gives the occasion for epistemology. If no one ever thought about anything, there would be no question of anyone discussing about thought. It is when we try to grapple with problems of wide scope and deep import about reality and encounter difficulties in solving them that we are forced to look back into our own minds to check whether the tools of our understanding are adequate to the demands of the task. Since metaphysics is anterior to epistemology in point of occurrence, it is open to a student of philosophy to study the metaphysical position of a school first and then retrace it to its epistemological explanation. Such a procedure may be called inductive, for it proceeds from the results to the principles followed. The advantage of this procedure for teaching philosophy is that it takes the beginner from the concrete to the abstract.

2. THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN EPISTEMOLOGY AND THE METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH IN PHILOSOPHY

The relationship which epistemology bears to metaphysics, whether we look at it from the logical or from the psychological angle is that it is the methodology of metaphysics. Now, the position of epistemology as a methodology should not lead us to identify epistemology with what we have been dealing with in this book, namely the methodology of research in philosophy. Let us see what the distinction between the two is.

Epistemology deals with the methods of doing metaphysics. Hence it could rightly be described as the methodology of research in metaphysics. But metaphysical pro-

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blems are not the only problems for research in philosophy, Topics for philosophical research could belong to any of the three divisions of philosophy, namely metaphysics, epistemology, and philosophy of values. They may even relate to any of the extensions of philosophy, such as philosophy of history, philosophy of science, and philosophy of art. Again, the topic could as well pertain to philosophy as such, i.e. it could be in meta-philosophy. And what is called 'methodology of research in philosophy' is the examination of the methods of investigating into all these areas in philosophy. Hence the scope of the methodology of research in philosophy is wider than that of epistemology.

The methodology of research in philosophy is not expected to include a detailed treatment of various theories of knowledge just because epistemology is also a methodology. Such a treatment would mean entering into the subject-matter of an area of philosophy. The methodology of research in philosophy is not supposed to discuss the content of any area of philosophy for the matter of that. Its proper task is to look at the work of philosophy in all its areas from the *outside* as it were and consider the approach to philosophical research. Such a task would cover questions of general interest to specialists in all areas of philosophy, such as equipment for research, choice of subject, and procedures in the different stages of execution.

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